The Catholic Educational Review

SEPTEMBER, 1927

THE INNER SPIRIT OF CATHOLIC EDUCATION¹

It is no small privilege to salute this day the representatives of our Catholic educational system, gathered from all parts of the United States, eager to renew their courage, their energies, and their vision for the holy work that opens before them on an ever broader scale that promises neither surcease nor diminution. Only the Divine Teacher could appreciate fairly the religious service and the merits of those teaching communities, large and small, to whose pious hearts are committed so largely the moral training and the religious instruction of our Catholic youth. For when all is said this is the original and definite purpose of our Catholic educational work in as far as it is an integrant element of Catholic life and is fostered by Holy Church with all the earnestness and zeal of which she is capable. It will not be amiss if at this solemn moment I should emphasize briefly this peculiar and essential feature of our Catholic schools.

During this scholastic year four great ideas have occupied in a notable way the thoughts of our teachers and pupils: God, man, the world, and life. These four ideas mark, roughly speaking, the limits of religious instruction, that instruction which constitutes the inner spirit of our Catholic schools, their reason of existence, their distinctive value and their peculiar service. Incidentally this daily preoccupation explains and justifies their ever-growing devotion to progress in religious instruction, its content, scope, means and improvement. Our Catholic schools teach that God really exists; that He is supremely holy, good, just, all-powerful and all-knowing; that He is one in three divine

¹ Address delivered at the opening session of the Catholic Educational Association, Detroit, Mich., June 26, 1927.

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and equal persons. They abominate the current gross popular blasphemy that seems to them like the mouth of hell, and they are daily active and earnest in reparation, social and individual, of the fundamental wrong thus done throughout our nation to the Creator of the world and man. Our schools teach firmly that man is the creature of God, body and soul, and by the latter destined to immortal life, en route of the present short and transient life; that he has been redeemed from his sins by Jesus Christ, second person of the Blessed Trinity, born of the Blessed Virgin Mary, and crucified on Calvary as a victim of divine justice for the sins of mankind. They teach daily that the world. all nature, is also God's creation but perishable and insufficient for man's happiness, nevertheless his actual home appointed by God and the obedient servant of man in his temporal conditions. Finally, our Catholic schools teach, day in and out, that life is only a journey from the cradle to the grave in which the divine will is our sufficient guide, made known to us by Holy Church through her approved agencies and lived out in view of a final, just, and irrevocable judgment that opens for us the gates of heaven or closes them to us forever. This is clearly an exhaustive philosophy of life but a deeply religious one. Moreover, it is taught in thousands of schools from ocean to ocean and in identical terms and concepts. The pages of a tiny catechism contain substantially as much as all the folios of St. Thomas Aguinas. Our Catholic schools may represent a minority of the American population in a religious sense, but we are the most closely organized of religious minorities and the impact of our religious teaching is proportionally irresistible, surely, within our own ranks. This religious teaching, it is true, may not be popular in a loose sense of the term, but it comes down in our Catholic schools from time immemorial and has weathered so many centuries of persecution, oppression, injustice and various wrong that its power of resistance seems morally secure.

It is true that during this year our Catholic schools have given great attention to secular study and research, to all the sciences, to the arts and crafts, to history and philosophy; to the world itself, its surface, products, peoples, habits and thoughts; to all the refinements and improvements of human life. In all these schools, however, secular knowledge is ever deliberately saturated with the higher and holier knowledge of God and

Revelation, of the true nature and destiny of man, of his proper relations to the outlying world of men and things, to society itself and the institutions by which the present order of life is carried on. In all these schools truth is held to be one and the order of nature is considered to be sympathetic and akin to the higher order of super-nature, the order of grace or special divine influence on man. Herein lies your particular calling in as far as you represent the hopes and the interest of the Catholic Church in our beloved country. These hopes and this interest are, of course, quite compatible with all worthy secular hopes and interests of an educational nature. Indeed it is the ambition of all Catholic education to omit from its range of activities no branch of human knowledge old or new that can in any way promote the common welfare, or serve the community in its growth or enable the citizen to assimilate the results of modern research and investigation along its many and far-flung lines.

10.00

THOMAS J. SHAHAN.

SUMMER SESSION OF THE CATHOLIC SISTERS COLLEGE

The seventeenth summer session of the Catholic Sisters College was opened on June 25 and closed on August 4. There were 367 Sisters and 38 lay women, a total of 405 students in residence.

The Religious representing 26 orders and congregations came from 73 distinct motherhouses in the United States and Canada. Twenty-seven states were represented in the registration and 27 dioceses of this country, Canada and the Philippine Islands.

The following charts show the registration in detail for states, dioceses and religious communities:

CHART I

Sister Students	
Total	
Religious Orders and Congregations	26
Motherhouses	73
Dioceses	42
States	27

CHART II

Students According to States (Including Lay Students)

Alabama 6	New Jersey 13
Arisona 2	New York 48
Arkansas 1	North Carolina 4
California 2	North Dakota 4
Connecticut 40	Ohio 12
District of Columbia 39	Pennsylvania 85
Georgia 6	South Carolina 11
Illinois 14	Tennessee 2
Iowa 2	Texas 7
Kentucky 6	Virginia 4
Maryland 23	West Virginia 3
Massachusetts	Wisconsin 32
Michigan 5	FOREIGN COUNTRIES
Missouri 1	Outremount, PQ 6
New Hampshire 3	Philippine Islands 1

CHART III

Students According to Dioceses

Baltimore 59	Nashville 2
Boston 16	Newark 13
Buffalo 8	New York 25
Charleston 11	North Carolina 4
Chicago 11	Peoria 1
Cleveland 2	Philadelphia 47
Cincinnati 8	Pittsburgh 12
Dallas 2	Richmond 4
Detroit 2	St. Louis 1
Dubuque 2	San Antonio 5
Erie 4	San Francisco 2
Fall River 7	Savannah 6
Fargo 4	Scranton 7
Grand Rapids 3	Springfield 2
Green Bay 14	Syracuse 16
Harrisburg	Toledo 2
Hartford 40	Tucson 2
La Crosse 8	Wheeling 3
Little Rock 1	Wilmington 2
Louisville 6	
Manchester 3	Foreign Countries
Milwaukee 10	Quebec 6
Mobile 6	Manila 1

CHART IV

Students According to Communities

Described and the second	Charles D. W. W.
Benedictine	Charity, B. V. M
Elizabeth, N. J 11	Charity of the Incarnate Word. 3
Fort Smith, Ark 1	San Antonio, Texas 3
Ridgely, Md 2	Catholic Medical Missionaries 2
Bernardine 2	Washington, D. C 2
Reading, Pa 2	Divine Providence 2
Blessed Sacrament 5	San Antonio, Texas 2
Cornwells Heights, Pa 5	Dominican 33
Blessed Trinity 6	Newburgh, N. Y 23
Holy Trinity, Ala 6	Sinsinawa, Wis 8
Charity 14	Springfield, Ky 2
Baltic, Conn 7	Felician 6
Emmitsburg, Md 3	Buffalo, N. Y 1
Greensburg, Pa 2	Detroit, Mich 1
Nazareth, Ky 2	Lodi, N. J 2

Foreign Mission Sisters of St. Buffalo, N. Y. 4	McKeesport, Pa 2	St. Mary 5
Dominic 2 Fort Worth, Texas. 1 Maryknoll, N. Y. 2 Mercy. 67 Franciscan 66 Belmont, N. C. 4 Baltimore, Md. 7 Buffalo, N. Y. 3 Glen Riddle, Pa. 21 Burlingame, Calif. 2 Green Bay, Wis. 2 Chicago, Ill. 3 Manitowoc, Wis. 9 Dallas, Pa. 2 Milwaukee, Wis. 10 Erie, Pa. 4 Peoria, Ill. 1 Fremont, Ohio. 2 Syracuse, N. Y. 16 Grand Rapids, Mich. 3 Franciscan Sisters of St. Kunegunda 4 Harrisburg, Pa. 15 Gunda 4 Hartford, Conn. 16 Khicago, Ill. 4 Manchester, N. H. 3 Holy Family of Naszareth. 11 Desplaines, Ill. 4 Holy Family of Naszareth. 11 Nashville, Tenn. 2 Savannah, Ga. 6 Baltimore, Md. 6 Outremount, P. Q. 6		
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Sixty-six lecture courses and five laboratory courses were offered. There were thirty-five instructors, of whom twenty-five are members of the Catholic University faculty.

The following special lectures were given: "The Immaculate Conception," by Rev. Dr. Bernard A. McKenna; "The United States a Great Country," by Rt. Rev. Monsignor Edward A. Pace; "How Cost Records Are Used in Determining Reasonable School Fees," by Dr. William M. Deviny; "The Promotion of Religious Vocations," by Rev. Michael A. Mathis; "The National Council of Catholic Women," by Miss Agnes Regan.

Six motion pictures of "The Chronicles of America" were shown during the course of the Summer Session. Dr. Richard J. Purcell, of the Department of History, gave an interesting historical sketch of each picture as it was thrown on the screen.

Mr. Conrad Bernier gave an organ recital, and Mrs. Teresa K. Hubner, contralto, and Mr. Malton Boyce, pianist, gave a music recital.

MARGARET M. COTTER.

Registrar.

DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF SIX PROBLEM CASES IN READING

The purpose in this report is to give the history of six problem cases of children who were handicapped in school work because of their reading disabilities, to state the treatment provided in each case and the resulting improvement.

CASE I

Preliminary Statement.—In September, 1925, James was thirteen years old and in the sixth grade. His home conditions were excellent. His mother had been a teacher before her marriage and had resumed the profession after the death of her husband. At the age of six, James spent one month in the first grade. Early in the semester he had an attack of influenza which kept him in a delicate state of health, so he was withdrawn from school for the year. In the meantime his father died, and the following fall the family moved from the east to the far west, where James attended school for a year.

The next year, 1921-1922, the boy was sent to a private school in Washington, D. C., from which, in September, 1922, he was transferred to a parochial school in the same city. Here he was placed in the second grade and at the end of a month was promoted to the third. The promotion was made on account of his age, size, and general ability, although he was, at the time, deficient in reading. The following year he was promoted to the fourth grade, where he began to feel his reading handicap because he was unable to prepare lessons in content subjects. He was helped over this difficulty somewhat by having his lessons read to him at home. He had a good memory, was generally well informed, and possessed remarkable reading ability, so that he always participated intelligently in recitations in religion, arithmetic, history, and geography. He was unable to take written tests, however, because he could not read the questions nor spell well enough to write the answers when the questions were read to him.

When James was in the second half of the fifth grade an informal test revealed that he could not read primer material with the fluency of a normal first-grade child. He was given some individual help at this period, but little progress resulted

because he had to remain after school for the instruction, and he was always anxious to leave in order to serve his paper route.

The following year, 1925, he was kept in the fifth grade. At the end of a month he was promoted to the sixth because he was above standard in all fifth-grade work except reading and spelling. Meantime systematic remedial instruction in reading was begun.

Testing and Diagnosis.—A preliminary study of his case was made by means of standardized reading tests. An examination of the results of these tests showed that James was unable to score in Form I, Test II, of Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test. In the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale he made a T score of 45, that is, the equivalent of a 5A score. In Gray's Oral Reading Check Test, Set III, No. 1, he made 16 errors, and required 360 seconds to read the paragraph. The standard sixthgrade score is 3 errors and 55 seconds. An examination of his oral-reading record showed that he read simple passages very slowly, that he hesitated before attacking unknown words, and that he did not recognize many simple words.

An examination of his silent-reading scores showed that, whereas he was unable to score in the Monroe test in which the time is limited, he made a fifth-grade comprehension score in the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale in which time pressure is not an element.

According to his teacher's informal judgment, James was possessed of superior mental ability.

His mother reported that he was extremely sensitive about his reading deficiency, especially because his sister, younger than he, was a fluent reader and was in a higher grade in school. Once he had told his mother that he was praying to God not for skill in reading, but to know why he could not gain that skill, and so be as everyone else.

The conclusion drawn from the results of standardized and informal tests, and from a consideration of the points mentioned above, was that any difficulties James experienced in comprehension were due to deficiencies in the mechanics of reading; that his slow rate was caused by non-recognition of words and a narrow span of recognition; that he was very much humiliated and discouraged by his inability to read; and that he was the type

of boy who would be a book-worm if he could once form skillful reading habits.

Treatment.—In this and the following cases, treatment was prescribed on the principle that the best way to learn to read is by reading. The formal type of drill, though employed at times, was not emphasized because of the conviction that the most efficacious exercises for the development of correct reading habits are to be found in real reading situations.

James received about twenty minutes' individual instruction during school hours for the greater part of the scholastic year. A third-grade teacher who had a small class of girls undertook this training during a period when her class was engaged in library reading. The training consisted in oral reading of simple interesting material, in phonetic exercises, and in short spelling drills. Standardized reading tests were given from time to time. These served not only to show his progress but also to stimulate interest in his own improvement. The results of these are given in Tables I, II, and III.

When remedial treatment was begun James seemed to have a real dread of reading. During the first two weeks his teacher read orally with him for ten minutes from a second reader. For the remainder of the period he was permitted to listen to a third-grade oral-reading lesson and was encouraged to follow the line being read. Even so short a period of oral reading was a task for him. During the ensuing weeks the oral reading was continued, and he was given training in spelling and phonetics based upon the vocabulary of first readers.

His teacher endeavored to interest him in the books on the library table, but failed. Further investigation of his unfavorable attitude toward reading revealed that he had been told he could never learn to read. After many interviews designed to encourage him and to awaken his self-confidence, he was at length persuaded that he could learn to read as well as anyone else. He improved after this and became interested.

He was assigned homework daily—sometimes to prepare to read a page well; at others, to read a story in order to be able to reproduce it; again, to be able to read a selection in order to find answers to questions. Several third-grade readers were read during this period; of these, a science reader was his preference.

He was then advanced to fourth readers. He read also with

his teacher Robinson Crusoe, The Child's Book in American History, and Child Life in Other Lands. The first book, which he enjoyed keenly, and the one which he said gave him the desire to read more, was America First, a large book containing about fifty stories of famous historical characters.

From this period he needed no more invitations to take a book from the library table. He always had an extra book on hand to read besides the one being used for remedial work. One day James entered the classroom greatly excited and announced that he could now read the funny paper. He became so interested in reading that his mother had difficulty making him retire on time at night.

In March, James was using a fifth reader. Later in the spring he read from a sixth reader and from the Bible history and United States history texts. He also began to borrow boys' books from his classmates and from a circulating library.

During the period of remedial instruction, it was found that James' interest could be sustained by encouragement and by the use of simple material that was interesting to him. He gained more vocabulary power from seeing and using words in real reading situations than from the word and phonetic drills. When attacking a new selection, he experienced his greatest difficulty in reading the first paragraph. After he had got the trend of the selection or story, he would progress well. To the end he was a slow reader. He said frankly several times that he did not like to read fast, because he wished to understand what he read.

Results.—His scores in the tests given at the close of the period of training show that he had made considerable progress in rate and accuracy of oral reading and in rate and comprehension of silent reading (see Tables I, II, III). In the Thorndike-McCall Scale he scored a year in advance of his grade in comprehension. He was still, however, below standard in rate. The low comprehension and the high rate score that he made in the final Monroe Silent-Reading test were due to the fact that he knew this to be a time-pressure test, and in trying to speed up he sacrificed accuracy.

The following year, 1926-1927, James was in the seventh grade. He was able to prepare his lessons unaided and was a leader in arithmetic, religion, and the social studies. In selecting and organizing ideas he was by far the best in his class. He

was, however, poor in written English because of his spelling disability.

TABLE I .- Gray's Oral Reading Check Test

Date	Form	So	ores	Standard sixth-grade score		
0	THE PROPERTY.	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	
Nov. 20	Set III, No. 1.	360	16	55	3	
Jan. 13	Set III, No. 2.	210	13	55	3	
Feb. 12	Set III, No. 3.	180	9	55	3	
Apr. 6	Set III, No. 4.	180	7	55	3	
June 2	Set III, No. 5.	90	2	55	. 3	

TABLE II .- Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale

Date	Form	T scores	Standard T scores		
			Grade 6B	Grade 7B	
Nov. 16	1 2 5	33 45 59	53.7 53.7 53.7	58.3 58.3 58.3	

TABLE III .- Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test Revised

Date	Form	Scores				Standard fif	th-grade scores
		Rate	Comp.	Rate	Comp.		
Feb. 9	1	86	4	135	9.8		
Mar. 9	2	44	2	135	9.8		
June 2	3	161	9	135	9.8		

CASE II

Preliminary Statement.—In April, 1926, Jack was seven years and two months old and in the second grade. His physical condition was good. He came from a very comfortable home. The parents were keenly interested in their children, but through excessive indulgence they had almost lost control of them. Jack entered a parochial school in September, 1924, at the age of five years and seven months. His work in the first grade had been

satisfactory in all subjects, and at the end of one year he was promoted to the second grade. After Christmas vacation of this year, it became evident that he was encountering serious difficulties in reading. His mother undertook to bridge over the trouble by giving him special help at home, but without success, and by April he was so retarded that he was not in line for promotion.

Testing and Diagnosis.—His teacher's report was that Jack's general intelligence was apparently normal. He was active and interested in activity, so much so that it was difficult to keep his attention centered for any length of time. His reading difficulties had escaped notice until the fifth school month because he memorized the selections and was, seemingly, a good reader. He was up to standard in other grade subjects, and ever ready with answers to questions.

On April 8 he was given Gray's Oral Reading Check Test, Set I, No. 1, in which his score was 85 seconds and 9 errors; the standard mid-year first-grade score is 78 seconds and 5 errors. His errors consisted of substitutions, non-recognition of words, and repetition of groups of words. He was found to be uninterested in reading, to have no ambition to learn to read, and to be almost altogether lacking in concentration. He was a fluent talker, had opinions of his own, and expressed them freely. He had all of a boy's interest in mechanical things.

An informal test in comprehension showed that he understood what he could read and indicated that any weakness in interpretation was due to difficulties in recognition. He had a good sense of sound and was able to blend elements into words after these elements had been pronounced for him, though his own habit (which he had formed at home) was to spell an unknown word, and from this to determine the pronunciation.

From a consideration of the above facts, the conclusion was reached that Jack's difficulties in reading related primarily to recognition and were due to lack of interest in reading, to instantention, and to lack of application.

Treatment.—Jack's mother undertook the remedial instruction under the guidance of a teacher. His interest in his own improvement was aroused by having his attention called to his test scores in Gray's Oral Reading Check Test which was administered periodically.

As soon as he discovered that his improvement was to be measured he became interested in the tests and in the numbers that showed his improvement, but not always in the exercises necessary to insure good scores. His training consisted primarily of extensive oral reading of very simple story material. He was also given some exercises in word recognition, such as: finding small words in larger words as all in small, love in lovely: making new words from old as singing from sing, loved from love; and flash exercises with word and phrase cards to increase rate. His reaction to the oral reading was better than that to the drills. His first real interest in content was manifested when he came for a test after reading Wag and Puff, the primer to The Child's Own Way Series. Of this he said very enthusiastically, "This was a good one about Billy and Sally! I like continued stories. Have you got another one like that to give me? If you just give me another about Billy and Sally, I'll be satisfied." Fortunately there was another to be had, and Jack was given Surprise Stories, the first reader. He was disappointed when he had finished reading this to find there were no more books in the series that told about Billy and Sally.

The books that he read orally during this period are the following primers: Everyday Classics, Horace Mann, Story Hour, Happy Hour Stories, New Corona, Wag and Puff, Winston Companion; and first readers: Surprise Stories, Bobbs-Merrill, Pathway to Reading, Horace Mann, Story Hour.

Results.—In Gray's Oral Reading Check Test that was given in June, Jack scored 26 seconds, 1 error, the standard mid-year second-grade score being 20 seconds, 1 error. He had, up to this time, read seven primers and four first readers. Because of his improvement in reading and of his standing in other subjects, it was decided to promote him to the third grade, but to continue the remedial instruction.

Remedial training in oral reading was continued, though rather irregularly, through the summer and until December, 1926, when he was tested for the last time. In Gray's Oral Reading Check Test, Set II, Form 3, he made a score of 150 seconds and 4 errors. This showed considerable progress, but he was still below standard, especially in rate. In Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale he made a T score of 31.5 which was a little below standard for the third grade but average for a child of his age. His scores of 21

in rate and 2 in comprehension in Monroe's Silent Reading Test, when compared with the Thorndike-McCall's scores, indicate that his slow rate was the cause of his low comprehension score. Since his teacher reported that his class work in all subjects was satisfactory, remedial instruction was discontinued, with the recommendation, however, that his reading performance be watched closely and that attention and application in reading be exacted of him.

During the second half of his third-grade year he became a leader in his class in all subjects except in oral reading in which his rate was still a little slow.

TABLE IV .- Gray's Standardized Silent Reading Check Test

						Stand	ard score	•	
Date	Form	Rate	Errors	Gre	ade I	Gra	de II	Gra	de III
				Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors
	Set I								
April 8	No. 1	85	9	78	5	20	1		
April 26	No. 2	40	4	78	5 5	20	1		
May 17	No. 3	38	1	78	5	20	1		
June 6	No. 4 Set II	26	1	78	5	20	1		- 4
Sept. 28	No. 1	220	16			112	6	63	3
Oct. 25	No. 2	170	6			112	6	63	3
Dec. 14	No. 3	150	4			112	6	63	3

TABLE V .- Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale.

Test	Dec. 14, 1926 scores	Third-grade standard scores
Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale: T Score	\$1.5	88.7
Monroe Silent Reading Test:	01.0	
Comprehension	. 2	3.8
Rate	21	82

CASE III

Preliminary Statement.—In November, 1925, Harold was 12 years and 6 months old and in the fifth grade. His parents were

in moderate circumstances and lived in a good residential neighborhood. They paid little attention to his progress in school. This was due, no doubt, to the fact that the father was a semi-invalid, and the mother often had to take a position to help support the family. When Harold was six years old an attack of diphtheria left him partially deaf.

He entered the first grade of a parochial school at the age of six. He spent two years in the first grade, one in the second, two in the third, and one in the fourth. In this school the classrooms were overcrowded, and it was the custom to seat the pupils according to their class standing. Being slow to learn, Harold usually sat in the last seat. His distance from the teacher and his partial deafness thus combined to handicap him considerably. He was not promoted to the fifth grade, and for this reason his parents transferred him to a private school, where he was received into the fifth grade on trial and where remedial instruction was begun.

Testing and Diagnosis.—Informal judgments of Harold's general mental ability ranked him as low average. His oral-reading score was at least three years below the standard in accuracy and two years below in rate. His reading was characterized by frequent repetitions, partial mispronunciations, the omission of words and letters, and the substitution of one word for another. He read in a loud, high-pitched voice, without expression, and jerkily, phrasing poorly. He encountered serious difficulties with long words and frequently mispronounced simple familiar words. He attacked unknown words hurriedly and usually got the initial sound or syllable correct but erred in the pronunciation of one of the intermediate syllables. He was not interested in reading, though he agreed that it is an accomplishment necessary to successful school and adult life; for this reason he was willing to try to learn to read.

The results of the silent-reading tests revealed that, in rate and comprehension of silent-reading, Harold made the scores of a 3B pupil.

Informal tests in comprehension showed that his interpretation in silent reading was as good as, if not better than, in oral reading, and that he was able to answer thought-provoking questions on material that was read to him.

The conclusions drawn from a consideration of the above facts

were that Harold was retarded in most phases of reading, and that his difficulties were especially pronounced in oral reading. His mastery of mechanics was similar to that of a second-grade child, with the exception that he was able to pronounce a limited number of somewhat difficult words. It was concluded also that his retardation was due largely to unfavorable conditions during the initial period of training and to consequent lack of interest and experience in reading.

Treatment.—Harold's period of training continued for several months for a twenty-minute period after school hours. The instruction was given for a time by an experienced teacher and then by a student-teacher.

An attempt was made first of all to discover Harold's interests and activities, both in and out of school. When asked about his school work, he did not express a liking for any particular subject. It was learned that he was interested in tales of adventure and in humorous selections.

When asked about his out-of-school activities he expressed enthusiasm in athletics, particularly in swimming and baseball. He had already decided on his career in life: he wished to be a business man.

Remedial treatment consisted principally in reading a large number of simple, interesting selections and books. A part of the daily period was used for oral reading, when Harold and his teacher read alternately. He was required to answer questions on this material, and at times to reproduce sections of it. Another part of the reading period was devoted to the silent reading of a paragraph with the purpose of finding the answer to questions proposed by the teacher. A few minutes daily were devoted to various exercises to increase his mastery of the mechanics of reading. These included flash exercises with words and phrases, training in phonetics, special drill on words similar in form such as this, that, very and every, was and saw, and training in correct phrasing.

Some of the books Harold read and found interesting were: Pinnochio, simplified editions of Arabian Nights, Robin Hood, and Robinson Crusoe, Children of History, and many selections from different Third and Fourth Readers.

As he developed independent power he became interested in reading and began to read at home. His choice was confined to adventure stories. Two months after remedial instruction had discontinued, he reported that he had read Dick Among the Lumber Jacks, and The Gold Seekers of '49.

Results.—The results of the remdial instruction are shown in Table VI, which contains the scores made at the beginning and end of the period of training, and second, third, fourth, and fifth grade standards.

The errors in the final oral-reading test were all inaccuracies due to carelessness and a desire to make a good showing by reading rapidly. They consisted of such errors as the omission of the final s, the substitution of a for the, the insertion of small words such as in and the.

According to these scores Harold had acquired the silent-reading ability of a fourth-grade pupil, but in accuracy of oral reading he was still below the third grade. His teacher reported that he was generally improved in content subjects, and that his progress in school seemed to be on a par with his mental ability. His inaccuracies in oral reading did not constitute a material handicap.

TABLE VI

Tests	Nov. scores	Mar. scores	Standard scores					
			Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5		
Gray's Oral Reading Check Test, Set II: Rate	75 17	60 7	112	63	62			
Monroe Silent Reading Test, No. I: Rate Comprehension	87 5	117		82 3.8	122 7.7	142 9.8		
Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale: T Score	36	40	30	37.3	41.8	48		

CASE IV

Preliminary Statement.—Henry was ten years old in October, 1926. His home conditions were good. His mother, a former

school-teacher, was a contributor to magazines. He had no physical defects that would account for his reading disability.

The boy received encouragement at home, and was provided with suitable books. His parents often read to him. He received, however, little practical help in reading as his mother believed that such training was the work of the teacher. He entered the fourth grade in September, 1926, not having repeated any grade.

According to the report of his teacher, he was poor in all school subjects. He was apparently of normal mental ability, and possessed considerable general information, but little school-subject information. He was uninterested in everything except farming and geography, and often expressed his desire to become a farmer. His teacher rated him informally in reading as having the ability of a second-grade pupil. In oral reading he was a word-caller. He confused words such as every and very, was and saw, some and same, etc. Though he was a very slow reader, he always comprehended the material he could read. He was unable, however, to prepare lessons in the content subjects of his grade unless they were read to him.

Testing and Diagnosis.—In October, 1926, Henry was given Gray's Oral Reading Check Test, Set I, No. 1. His scores and the standard scores are noted in Table VII. An examination of his record in this test showed that in rate and accuracy he was inferior to a second-grade pupil. His errors consisted of the substitution of saw for was and the for one, the repetition of two phrases, and the non-recognition of two words.

Informal tests of comprehension showed that he was able to reproduce what he could read and to answer thought questions about the content of passages in which he encountered few vocabulary difficulties. He was able to interpret more difficult selections satisfactorily after errors in recognition had been corrected, or when this material was read to him. These facts showed that his difficulties lay in the mechanics of reading.

The diagnosis made from the consideration of the above points was that Henry's retardation in oral reading was due to the following causes: (a) he failed to note important details of words; (b) his sight vocabulary was small; (c) his span of recognition was narrow; (d) he had no interest in reading.

Treatment.—The primary purpose of remedial treatment was

to arouse his interest and to overcome his difficulties in the mechanics of reading. It was necessary to build a reading vocabulary, to widen his span of recognition, and to increase his reading rate. In order to accomplish these ends his teacher gave Henry daily individual instruction.

The first step aimed to create in him a desire to read and to stimulate an interest in his progress. The teacher first secured his confidence by manifesting interest in his expressed pref-

erences, geography and farming.

She then turned his attention to reading. She read the following books orally with him: Wag and Puff, Surprise Stories, Pathway to Reading Primer, Pathway to Reading First Reader, Horace Mann Primer, Horace Mann First Reader, Marquette Primer, Marquette First Reader, Field Primer, and Field First Reader. He showed no interest during the first part of this instruction, but he was always willing to remain after school for his lesson. In the beginning his comprehension of the stories read was tested orally. Then his teacher discovered that he was very partial to written tests modeled after the new-type examinations. Therefore she made out multiple-choice, true-false, ves and no, and completion tests on the selections read. In these tests he always averaged A. As his interest in reading increased he began to read at home. In March, 1927, his mother reported that he had read Fableland. When his teacher spoke to him about this book, he asked for a written test on it. This test was divided into three parts, a completion exercise, a multiple-choice exercise, and a true-false exercise. He made an average of A.

As a further incentive Henry was put into competition with another boy in his group to see which could read the greater number of books and so have a greater number of stars after his name on the reading chart.

During April and May, 1927, Henry read Field's Third Reader. Some of the selections were read orally with the teacher, others were read silently. During this period he was encouraged to form good silent-reading habits, and special exercises were given to increase his comprehension.

Results.—In the mid-year oral-reading examination Henry received C. In the final examination he received A in both oral and silent reading. His teacher reported in May that he was generally improved in all subjects, particularly in spelling, and 'that he was able to study content lessons alone.

On May 2 he took a test in Form 1 of the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, and made a T score of 40. Though this is 1.8 below the mean norm for 4B, Henry's reading quotient was 105, ranking him as high average in the understanding of sentences. Form 2 of the same test was administered on June 10 after a month of special training to increase comprehension. His T score was 45 or 3.2 above the mean norm for his grade; his reading quotient as determined by this test was 117, thus ranking him as superior in the understanding of sentences.

The scores of his last test in oral reading on May 1 showed that he had not yet reached the standard for grade four, but his teacher's report was that his oral reading was sufficiently satisfactory to allow him to advance to the fifth grade. She recommended, however, that he receive special training in this type of reading until he had attained the standard for his grade.

TABLE VII .- Gray's Oral Reading Check Test

Date	Form	Se	ores	Standard second-grade scores		
		Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	
Oct. 22.	Set I No. 1	50	6	20	1	
Nov. 15	No. 2	20	3	. 20	1	
Nov. 22	No. 3	25	1	20	1	
Dec. 6	No. 4	15	1	20	1	

TABLE VIII. -Gray's Oral Reading Check Test

Date	Form	Sec	ores	Standard fourth-grade score		
		Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	
	Set II	-		-		
Jan. 23	1	90 95	13	62	2	
Feb. 11	3	80	5	62	2	
Mar. 8	4	90	4	62	2	
May 1	5	80	3	62	2	

TABLE IX .- Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale

Date	Form	T Score	Standard fourth-grade score		
May 2	1	40	41.8		
June 10	II	45	41.8		

CASE V

Preliminary Statement.—In November, 1925, Billy was eleven years old and in the fifth grade. He had entered school at the age of six and had repeated the first grade because of difficulties in reading. An examination of the school history of his two older sisters and a younger brother showed that one sister had never learned to read, though she had always attended a private school and had received individual attention, and that the other sister and the younger brother had been slow to acquire skill in reading. In consideration of the family history and of Billy's difficulty with reading, the school authorities had not retarded him after he passed from the first grade. Billy's physical condition was good. He was quiet and easily embarrassed. He lived in a comfortable home. His parents had only a common school education, but they were interested in the progress of their children. Billy said he learned his lessons by having his sister read them to him and listening to class recitations.

An informal talk with him revealed that he liked arithmetic and geography best of his school subjects, and that he wished to learn to read because he would then be able to study his lessons unassisted.

Testing and Diagnosis.—The teacher's informal opinion of Billy's intelligence was that in every-day affairs he possessed a fund of common sense and good judgment, but that in ability to do school work he was a little below the average eleven-year-old boy. His ability in arithmetic, however, was almost normal.

His scores in the different reading tests are given in Tables X and XI. An examination of his record sheet in oral reading showed that he read very slowly, haltingly, and inaccurately. Total mispronunciations were very frequent and he sometimes substituted one word for another. He made a second-grade score in the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, and lower than a third-grade score in the Monroe Silent Reading Test. When the pas-

sages and the directions of these tests were read to him, he scored higher than when he read them himself, showing that his difficulties were in recognition rather than in interpretation.

His ability to read at sight the first 500 words in Thorndike's Word Book was tested. He knew very few of these words at sight, but could work out the greater number of them phonetically or by spelling them aloud.

His ability to remember words learned at sight was tested as follows. He was taught the following words by sight: very, every, mice, squirrel, rabbit, horse, turkey. The next day he was tested on them, and he had remembered all.

The conclusions drawn from the above points were that Billy had a limited sight vocabulary, that his span of recognition was narrow, that he read very slowly and that he was weak in interpretation owing primarily to difficulties in recognition.

Treatment.—Billy received individual instruction from a student-teacher from November until May, for a daily period of twenty minutes. He was absent frequently, and to this may be attributed, in part, the slow progress he made.

A major portion of the daily period was devoted to oral reading of simple material during which Billy and his teacher read alternately. At times he prepared a paragraph silently, asking for help with unknown words. Then he would read the paragraph aloud. This seemed to help his understanding of the selection as well as his oral-reading expression. It was found that he frequently recognized words in sentences that he could not recognize in isolation, showing that he often derived the pronunciation of a word from the content.

Various exercises were used to aid him to recognize words and phrases independently. These included games and drills with word and phrase cards, phonetics, and study of important details of words. He had built up a certain phonetic system of his own, so that systematic phonetic instruction seemed to confuse rather than to help him.

Billy read the following books with his teacher: Aesop's Fables, Bolenius Primer, Bolenius First Reader, Everyday Classics First Reader, and Everyday Classics Second Reader.

Results.—An examination of Billy's scores showed that he had made more improvement in accuracy in oral reading than in comprehension in silent reading. Even this small progress was

accomplished at the sacrifice of a tremendous amount of time and energy. The decrease in the Monroe test in May is typical of his case: one day he would show encouraging progress, and the next would give no evidence of the training he had received. It was obvious at the end of the training period that special instruction must be given every day for a long period of time before he could read independently.

TABLE X .- Gray's Oral Reading Check Test

Date	Form		ores	Standard scores				
		30	ores	Grade 1		Grade 2		
		Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	
	Set I							
Nov. 30	No. 1	93	8	78	5	20	1	
Dec. 12	No. 2	35	8	78	5	20	1	
Jan. 22	No. 3	25	2	78	5 5 5	20	1	
Feb. 12	No. 4 Set II	20	1	78	5	20	1	
Mar. 3	No. 1	198	25			112	6	
Apr. 9	No. 2	217	20					
May 20	No. 3	180	14					

TABLE XI .- Silent Reading Tests

Test	November scores	May scores	Standard third-grade scores
Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale: T Score	26	28	88.7
Rate	52	23	82
Comprehension	3	1	3.8

CASE VI

Preliminary Statement.—In January, 1926, William was fourteen years old. He had no physical defects which were likely to interfere with his progress in reading. At the age of seven he had entered a Connecticut parochial school in which the classrooms were overcrowded. The next year he was promoted to the second grade. William was frequently absent from school during bad weather. Subsequently he entered the third grade of a Baltimore parochial school at the age of nine, where he attended regularly. When he entered the third grade he was unable to read. He spent two years in the third grade, one year in the fourth, and two years in the fifth. His retardation was caused by his inability to do class work that involved reading and spelling.

When interviewed, he said he liked religion, history, and geography best of the school subjects. Though he could not read well enough to study, he said that he learned his lessons by hearing his classmates recite, and that he also had the constant and persevering help of his mother at home.

He professed to be interested in electricity and inventions, and expressed a desire to go to high school as a preparation for a course in electrical engineering.

Testing and Diagnosis.—His teacher's report was that William was earnest and anxious to learn, and that he did well in school subjects when they did not involve reading and spelling. He was a very helpful child in the classroom, in the matter of distributing and collecting materials, etc. His interests were in advance of those of the pupils in the fifth grade and in accordance with his age. He seemed to possess about normal mental ability.

The scores he made in the reading tests and standard scores are shown in Tables XII and XIII. These scores indicate that William's accuracy in oral reading was below the average for a first-grade pupil, and that in comprehension in silent reading he ranked as a second-grade pupil.

His oral reading was a painful performance. He spelled every word in an audible whisper before attempting to pronounce it. Added to this, his major errors were substitutions of such words as went for want, sent for said, and roomy for round, and insertions and omissions of parts of words. He simply could not read silently. The attempt to do so was accompanied by much whispered spelling and vocalization.

Informal tests in comprehension showed that he could answer both thought and fact questions on what he could read. It was surprising to note how much he readily understood of what he stumbled through so badly. He had formed a habit of concentrating on what was read to him, and was ever ready to reproduce stories or to discuss interesting selections that he had heard read.

The conclusion drawn regarding William's reading defects was that he was particularly retarded in the mechanics of reading, and that his principal difficulty was non-recognition of words and vocalization during silent reading. His slow rate of reading and poor comprehension of material read silently was thought to be caused by his small reading vocabulary. The most significant explanation of his deficiency in reading lay in the unfavorable conditions under which he had received his initial instruction in reading.

Treatment.—William's interest in his improvement was already aroused, and it was stimulated by his mother's desire for his progress.

The remedial instruction aimed to form good habits by giving him a wide opportunity to read. Until he acquired a primary-grade oral-reading ability, the major part of the instruction was in oral reading. He was given but one type of drill, namely, exercises in recognition of words having common elements, such as for, of, and off, these and those, etc. Since he had the ability to sound simple words and to pronounce polysyllabic words when they were divided into syllables he was not given training in phonetics.

There was no remedial teacher available, so William's training was undertaken by his mother under the direction of a teacher. Every evening she read aloud with him for twenty minutes, he reading one paragraph, and she, the next. This training continued for over a year and is still in progress, though as soon as he developed sufficient independence in reading, he was given a silent-reader of the study type, and his mother was instructed to proceed with silent-reading as well as with oral-reading exercises. His attention at this time was directed to conquering his lip-movement tendency in silent-reading and to improving his comprehension in both oral and silent reading.

Results.—In June, 1927, William was still receiving remedial instruction. He had done fairly satisfactory work in Grade 6 during the school year, and had been promoted to Grade 7. An examination of his reading scores showed that he had advanced to the third grade in accuracy of oral reading and to the fourth grade in comprehension in silent reading. His teacher reported

that he had no difficulty in content subjects, and that he was able to take written tests, though his spelling was still poor. An examination of his oral-reading record sheet showed that he had overcome the habit of spelling each word before pronouncing it, that he had acquired a fair sight vocabulary, and that his reading rate had improved. His major oral-reading errors were substitutions and gross mispronunciations. William's mother is still giving him daily lessons in silent and oral reading, and will continue to do so under direction until he has acquired the reading ability necessary to his school work.

TABLE XII .- Gray's Oral Reading Check Test

Date Form		Scores		Standard scores						
	Form			Grade 1		Grade 2		Grade 3		
	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errors	Rate	Errore		
1926	Set I									
Jan. 29	No. 1	45	11	78	5 5	20	1			
Mar. 28	No. 5 Set II	28	1	78	5	20	1			
Apr. 17	No. 1	210	20			112	6	63	3	
Sept. 4	No. 2	150	13			112	6	63	3	
Dec. 11	No. 3	90	6			112	6	63	3	
June 11	No. 4	90	4			112	6	63	3	

TABLE XIII .- Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale

Date	Form	T score	Standard scores				
,			Grade 2A	Grade SA	Grade 4A		
Jan. 29, 1926	1	26.5	26	88.7	39.6		
Sept. 4, 1926	2	31.5	26	33.7	39.6		
June 11, 1927	5	39	26	33.7	39.6		

The reader perhaps has noted that in none of the above cases was a strictly scientific procedure followed. In the first place, the aim was not to make each pupil's reading age conform to his mental age, but to raise his reading scores to the standards for his grade, and so to remove the handicap that retarded his progress in school work. To have adopted the first aim would have necessitated the administering of individual intelligence tests. For this a skilled tester is required and one was not available. Each child's mental ability was informally considered, however, though the liability to error in such judgments was recognized.

In the second place, skilled remedial teachers were not obtainable for the work. In the two instances where the remedial instructors were experienced teachers, the progress made in the given time was more satisfactory than when such was not the case. In the third place, the instruction was given at unfavorable times.

To sum up, the pupils whose reading histories are recorded above were seriously retarded in reading. Remedial instruction resulted in noteworthy progress in five of the six cases. Though the procedure followed was not scientifically perfect, it benefited the pupils, and it was of a type that could be undertaken by any teacher in any school. The removal of a handicap from these pupils has changed their whole outlook upon their school life if not also upon their adult life.

SISTER MARY GRACE, Sisters of Mercy, Baltimore.

ATHENIAN EDUCATION

His own active cooperation in the attainment of the "good life" for the state being the "driving power" of the life of the Greek citizen, it is but natural that the first and perhaps the only aim of education was not commercial aptitude or vocational ability, but to train the young as citizens, and such training had of necessity to be on some definite plan. But, though the philosophical conceptions of Plato and Aristotle of the duties of the state in regard to education very fairly represent Greek theory, there was considerable diversity in practice. In the earlier ages primary education was compulsory for the sons of all Athenian citizens, but with the increase of individualism the practice fell into disuse and had disappeared by the time of Plato, when the state actively concerned itself only with the ephebi or military cadets. Only in Sparta, where the organization of the whole of education and society was directed towards military efficiency, was the system entirely in the hands of the state, for this reason earning a limited approbation from both Plato and Aristotle.

The fees of Athenian "primary" schools were low and the need for a proper education so appreciated that the number of citizens whose children did not profit by them must have been small, and the boy left the society of his mother and sisters for them at the age of six, to enter upon a course which, if not distinguished by the remarkable singleness of purpose of the Spartan system, was nevertheless controlled by an ideal that may be very fairly summed up in the words of Rousseau:

"It is education that should give men's souls the national stamp, and so shape their opinions and tastes as to make them

patriots by inclination, by passion, by necessity."

For nine years the boy worked at the three "r's," grammar, music, and gymnastics, and the foundation and inspiration of the whole of this education was the poetry of Homer. Homer was regarded not merely as a teacher, as any poet may be, but as inspired; his words were sacred, and from Solon to Aristotle his works were continually studied, quoted, interpreted, and discussed. Sometimes the interpretations were allegorical, and always the ideas of courage, temperance, wisdom, and justice

were presented in the persons of his heroes, and the desire of imitation stirred in the young mind. It is no cheap parallel to call Homer the "Athenian Bible," for his works held a very similar position to that occupied by the Christian Scriptures in a not long past age of Protestant middle and lower class upbringing.

Though the chief. Homer was not the only poet studied. The Theogony of Hesiod was popular, and from his Works and Days. wherein he deals with "tilling the soil and times for ploughing and seasons of harvest," the more independent minds may have gained their first idea of neighborliness as distinct from the more impersonal patriotism of the city-state. And in the poems of Choerilus, who took for his original theme the heroism of the Persian wars, they saw the Homeric ideals translated into contemporary action. In the later stages selections from the tragic poets were learned, and though, not unnaturally, old Attic comedy was not considered a suitable subject, the new comedy of Menander became part of the curriculum. Prose was always far subordinate to poetry, and only Æsop appears to have received very serious attention. Directly they could read the boys were made to learn passages by heart and to declaim them. the same principle being applied to the teaching of music. It is noticeable how many of the Homeric heroes, Odysseus, Nestor, Achilles. Menelaus, are represented as having the qualifications of orators as well as of poets; it suggests an interesting reflection, humorous or melancholy, as to how far our warriors of today could face a test in these arts.

The chief musical instrument employed was the lyre, on which boys were taught to accompany their own singing, and from the songs of Simonides, Pinder, Solon, and Archilocus they learned the value of rhythm and harmony and an appreciation of the beauty of melody wedded to fair words.

The gymnastic training consisted of games, or rather athletics (foot-racing, wrestling, javelin-throwing, and other individual contests), and dancing, choral and dramatic in character, and often in the nature of military evolutions performed to music. These gymnastics, to which the utmost importance was attached, varied in different states. In some, special feats of strength or skill were aimed at, but in Athens the end in view was a high state of all-round fitness. It is suggested by Plato that educa-

tion in both music and gymnastics was instituted principally for the sake of the soul, but this would seem to be a later development, and to work at gymnastic exercises "with a view to the spiritual element of his nature" is rather an expression of Plato's own mind. That it by no means represented Athenian practice may be judged from the professionalism and specialization into which games ultimately degenerated.

Nevertheless, though all seems subordinated to the ideal of a sound mind in a healthy body, that which stands apart from both mind and body, character, was normally the supreme interest, and the boy was subjected to a moral supervision and discipline by comparison with which ours of today seem slack. He was continually under the eye of his slave-attendant, or pedagogue, and parents demanded that moral excellence should be considered before proficiency in letters or music, which were, at any rate theoretically, only means to an end. And that end, translated into terms of today, when the measure of a man is what he is, rather than what he is worth to the state, appears to have been an intellectual poise, a balance of mind, a just sense of proportion, a symmetry and completeness of life, which more than any other qualities our modern education seems unable to produce.

The primary education was finished at fourteen, and the next four years were devoted, by those whose parents could afford it, to a voluntary course of higher studies, chiefly mathematics (i.e., arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy) and rhetoric, and sometimes including literature, art, dialectic, geography, prosody, logic, philosophy, and political science. This secondary education was provided in two distinct classes of schools, those of the "peripatetics," or Sophists, and the permanent schools.

Many of the former, who wandered from place to place and taught in the markets and colonnades, were not Athenians nor imbued with the Athenian spirit, and they represented the liberal tendency in Athenian thought. Their chief preoccupations were logic and rhetoric, but their knowledge ranged over every subject of the day, and, if they were largely responsible for the intellectual quickening of the fifth century, and if they kept education from becoming completely stereotyped, their learning in its decadence was dependent on superficial cleverness and verbal and metaphysical subtleties.

Not primarily but essentially the permanent schools at the Academe and the Lyceum, the school of law of Demosthenes and of Isocrates, were established to combat the evil influence of the Sophists, whose free-thinking and high fees constituted a real danger. To Plato "the one thing needful seemed to be to establish in society a permanent ethos, a traditional character which should be able to resist the shocks of party spirit and individual caprice," and while his ideas were based upon the existing system his innovations were startling and bold, as e.g., the discarding of the "false fables" of Homer and Hesiod as being pernicious to young minds, the extension of education to women of ability, and the selection at twenty years of age of promising pupils to undergo a course of higher education, which, concurrently or alternating with their duties as citizens, was to end only with life. Thus would be ensure the true prosperity of a state by bringing together the best and highest-trained intelligences to exercise political power therein.

With Aristotle the supreme aim of education was to obtain for the state the life of the highest attainable good; it is that education which contributes most to preserve the state, and it should, therefore, be a common care and common to all. Aristotelian virtue consisting in reason, and reason indicating the right use of leisure as the essential happiness, it is that end which he seeks to compass, combined with the active life of citizenship. It is only a very broad utilitarianism, therefore, that finds a place in his scheme. Social efficiency is only part of the life of a good citizen, and equally necessary is a high personal culture, and it is this stressing of the intrinsic excellence of a liberal education (i.e., in such knowledge as does not make the possessor mean or mechanical) that is the most outstanding feature of his ideas.

The final stage of Athenian education was the two years from eighteen to twenty spent by the youth of the first three property classes as *ephebi* or military cadets, who were employed on garrisons, patrolling frontiers, and occasionally in war. It was compulsory for the physically fit until the fourth century, when both its exclusive and military features began to disappear, and the *ephebia* at length became a sort of university, the germ, in fact, of the University of Athens.

Looked at as a whole, it seems impossible to deny to Athenian

education the epithets liberal, noble, and efficient, and that, I would dare to add, not only in the light of Greek ideals, but even of the demands of the present day. The life of the boy from six to eighteen was passed in an atmosphere of moral strictness and emulation of noble models, both of character and the arts, and in an environment of beauty to which his attention was daily, even hourly, directed, in the theater, the temples, the Acropolis, the palaestra; even building had its influence. and it is significant that in our own day it is difficult to say whether the educational value of that art or of music or of plastic and pictorial art is the most neglected. And, as the state was well served by the system, so the boy, for his own soul's good, learned the pleasures, or rather the happiness, to be enicved from the appreciation of good music, of good poetry, of good sculpture and building, combined with the physical fitness depending on good habits and hard games.

DONALD ATTWATER

THE CATHOLIC SCHOOL PROBLEM IN SOUTHERN CHINA

A Chinese proverb says: "The world thinks that the increase of knowledge is learning." This is one of the many things that are wrong with China today. Since the leisurely system of the old-time classical education has been discarded, the main idea is to learn a little of everything, and learn it quickly. Therefore courses are shortened, textbooks abridged, and more branches wedged into the already tightly packed curriculum. Nowadays, in China the tail-end graduate of a grade school has an accumulation of knowledge that dazzles an old-time degree winner by its diversity and novelty, but the old-time degree man is not far from the truth when he scornfully says the modern graduate cannot write so much as a letter.

The modern schoolboy is so busy gathering his samples of all varieties of knowledge that he has little time to acquire perfection in grammar and style, whereas the old-timer made literature and elegance of style his life work. No doubt the modern student's knowledge is more practical than that of the ancients. The trouble is that, although the student of today has but a smattering of learning, he thinks he just about knows it all, and acts accordingly. Self-restraint is not over-emphasized in the modern school, hence the agitators for every radical and riotous movement begin with the student class.

There is another Chinese proverb which says: "Wise men regard diminishing their passions and extinguishing their selfish desires as learning." Combine the increase of knowledge with the diminishing of the passions, and we have what the Catholic Church regards as learning.

Many important chapters of the history of education are in the same book with the history of the Catholic Church, the Church in mission lands included. In some mission countries Catholic schools are the only schools, in other countries Catholic schools have been officially recognized as the best, and in nearly all mission lands Catholic schools are encouraged.

In China, Catholic schools and Christian schools in general, which must compete with innumerable other schools, are popularly recognized as the best, but are officially hampered more and more each year. Since the adoption of the "Western" system of education, the Chinese government, central and local, has established thousands of schools, from kindergartens to universities. Clans and family groups have also endowed schools. Besides these regularly graded and chartered schools, there are countless little village schools. The graded schools are well supplied with revenue and many do not charge tuition. However, abundance of funds is one of their greatest evils, giving cause for not a few scandals. Sometimes men quite unfitted for the office, or uninterested in the work, seek and get the job of principal for the handling of the funds only. Often discipline is a riot.

Most sensible folks realize that schools under the missioner's direction are more free from irregularities and agree that such schools are better, although they may not send their children to them. The government does not recognize a diploma from a school no matter how good it may be, unless it is regularly chartered or registered. To be granted registration, it must fulfill the requirements of the Board of Education. One of these requirements forbids the teaching of religion as a part of the regular course, even in schools conducted and financed by missions. Recently, the Revolutionary Government, now in control of the southern half of China, decreed that all private and mission schools must be registered or close up.

Are we, then, going to stop teaching Catholic doctrine in our schools, or are we going to let our Catholics go to the government schools and hang on to their religion as well as they can in these anti-religious times? You know we cannot do either. We will always find some way to teach religion to our students, pagan as well as Catholic, so long as we can keep them in our schools.

Our own school here at Kochow has been registered with the Provincial School Board since we began it, several years ago. Without the official stamp of the yamen, our diplomas would have no value when presented with an application to a higher school or with an application for a teacher's position in a regular school. Moreover, the various clans have a common fund, the revenue from which is annually divided among the male members of the clan. Diploma holders get the biggest share of this in the form of a cash prize at graduation and a fixed portion of

rice and pork, or cash, every year. Because Catholics do not burn joss before the ancestral tablets, they often provoke the clan heads, who get revenge by saying: "Ah, your diploma is from a foreigner's school, what? All right, you just go to the foreigners for your rice and pork!"

However, if the diploma bears the big red stamp of the district magistrate, the dividend must be handed out, or the clan will lose a lawsuit. One might think that a few pounds of pork or a few pecks of rice are not worth squabbling about. but it is just because of such trifles that the Chinese courts are filled with endless lawsuits. Rice and pork may not amount to much, but there is the principle of the thing and the all-

important, life-and-death matter of "face."

If we could not bestow official diplomas, we would not have enough students to make a school interesting. We would get hardly any non-Catholic students, and even the Catholics would be tempted to go elsewhere. There may be doubts about the desirability of pagan students in Catholic schools. For myself, I cannot see where the Church is harmed by having students come under the influence of her teachings and practices, whether they ever believe in them or not. There is, of course, sometimes danger of the pagan students having bad influence over the Catholics and causing disturbances.

In our own school there have always been more pagans than Catholics, but they have caused no unpleasantness. A fair number of them have already become Catholics, others are asking to be baptized, while most of them will probably never join the Church. All are as loval to us as our own people, and I hardly think they will ever be other than friendly. They certainly have little sympathy with the follies of the student bodies of the other schools. Nearly every week, the revolutionary agitators lead the students of the city in a parade to demonstrate against this or that, but our boys have always declined to follow the crowd. When the budding Bolsheviks were at our gates, howling: "Down with the Catholic Church!" and "Boycott Catholic schools!" our boys quietly stuck to their lessons-except once, when a gang of them went to the gate to invite the ranters to "start something."

Non-Catholic students are a great help to us financially. Our Catholics are almost all very poor, and we do not charge them

tuition. The pagans willingly pay in full, although they could go to free schools. Thus they practically help to pay for the education of Catholics. Without some income it would be hard to keep our schools alive; without non-Catholic students there would be no income and, without the added expense of a registered school, there would be no paying students.

The small income from tuition is far from enough to pay the cost of operation. For the balance we must trust in Providence, believe in Santa Claus, and court Lady Luck. It is certain that our schools cannot do their best when the missioner is not at all sure he is going to be able to pay their way to the end of the term. What we need is a fund that will enable us to foresee the extent of our work and give us more confidence in the future.

Catholic schools we must have; no questioning that. The progress of the Church in China depends very much upon the progress of Catholic schools. It is not so hard to find people who want to be Catholics, but it is generally a hard job to teach them enough catechism to be baptized. In not a few missions there are not even to be found men and women who know enough to teach catechism. It is not pleasant to hear it said that our Catholics are "sweet potatoes," which is Chinese for "dumbbells." In some local districts the law requires that even the teachers of the small village primary schools be diploma holders, or at least be able to teach regular school branches. This affects our country catechism schools somewhat also. These village doctrine schools must be developed to furnish students for the graded school at the central mission, so we must train teachers for them.

At present, many mission schools must employ non-Catholic teachers, because no Catholics are equipped to teach in a registered school. Of course, Catholics can go to the government normal and high schools, but when we see what is going on there in these days of bolshevistic frenzy, we cannot encourage them to get into the mix-up.

The Catholic school problem here then amounts to this: how are we going to establish a normal school to train teachers for the grammar schools; grammar schools to train teachers for the village doctrine schools; village schools to train Catholics for the Sacraments? Everybody agrees that the foundation and upkeep of this system will cost a lot of money, much more than our Chinese Catholics can put out.

Our aim is not to educate our people to be politicians and officials, much less to go out to the big cities and engage in business. We want to fit them for a better understanding and appreciation of their religion, so that they may hold up the torch of the Faith to light the way of the millions to the increase of knowledge which they crave, and to the diminishing of their passions of which they stand in such need.

ADOLPH J. PASCHANG, A.F.M.

COLLOIDS

"Colloids" is a word which is beginning to appear frequently in elementary chemistry books and further acquaintance with it will be profitable to science teachers, while many people who are "up" on other subjects may be stimulated by an introduction to it.

To Thomas Graham, the coiner of the word, it signified a peculiar class of glue-like substances, but later work has changed the term to mean a peculiar condition of any substance. In the language of Physical Chemistry, a colloid is a two-component two-phase system. This means a colloid is two substances mixed together. Students of science are already familiar with two kinds of mixtures, namely, solutions, wherein the mixing is so complete the particles cannot be distinguished one from another, as sugar in water; and mixtures like sand and water, the grains of sand being visible. How do colloids, which are also mixtures, differ from the two former? Only in this-the size of the distributed particles is different. In the sugar solution the particles are molecular in size and therefore invisible. In the mixture of sand and water the particles are large enough to be seen, each one separately. If sand and water are ground together, a suspension is obtained. On standing, the largest particles will settle, leaving a cloudy liquid. This liquid is not a solution, as solutions are clear even when colored. It is not a mixture, as no particles are visible. It is a colloidal solution of silica (sand). The particles can be made visible in a microscope by intense illumination from the side, which arrangement is called an ultra-microscope. The particles themselves are not visible, but the little halos of light surrounding each one can be seen. This is known as the Tyndal effect and is identical with the phenomena of the path of light through a dusty room, which shows that dust is colloidal.

A colloid is, then, a solution wherein the distributed particles are larger than molecules and smaller than microscopic particles. This gives rise to a well-defined range of size for colloids which Ostwald has called "The World of Neglected Dimensions."

The peculiar size of colloid particles leads at once to peculiar

¹ Die Welt der Vernachlassigten Dimensionen. Steinkopff, Dresden.

properties, the most interesting one being the surface energy. Colloids, as a rule, are inactive chemically, but from a physical point of view they are very reactive. As their surface is large compared to their mass, they tend to decrease their specific surface by combining with things. This tendency, which is increased when the surface is crenalated and especially when the material is porous, gives rise to the phenomena of "absorption" (i.e., the taking up of substances on the surface in a physical way, as the compound formed does not have definite composition, which a chemical union must provide).

Freundlich considers these surface phenomena the basis of all colloid chemistry and has called his authoritative work² on the

subject, Kappillarchemie.

Colloids, as the reader has probably guessed, are god-children of Physical Chemistry, but, in spite of this, their scientific side has remained empirical with few generalizations to aid in their study.

This subject may be divided in several ways, one of which is according to the state of the substances forming the colloid. Ostwald divides it in the following manner:⁸

1.	Gas	Particles	in	Gas	(Exception—This system is never colloidal.)
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- 2. Gas Particles in Liquid.....Foam
 3. Gas Particles in Solid.....Pumice
- 4. Liquid Particles in Gas......Fog
- Liquid Particles in Liquid Emulsions
 Liquid Particles in Solid Certain Minerals
- 7. Solid Particles in Gas Smoke
- 8. Solid Particles in Liquid..... Largest Group
- 9. Solid Particles in Solid Ruby Glass

Each of the divisions given above might be made the subject of a book and some already have been; but to discuss the properties of any would be too technical. Let us turn to another aspect of colloids.

Are colloids an important study?

The following list of chapter headings taken from Arndt's book indicate they are.

Leipzig, 1923. Pp. 1,200.

[&]quot;Theoretical and Applied Colloid Chemistry." Wiley, N. Y., p. 42.

[&]quot;Popular Treatise on Colloids in Industry." Chem. Pub. Co., Easton, Pa.

Ruby Glass Dyeing Metal Mirrors Tanning Tungsten Lamps Soap Ceramics Brewing Cement. Sewage Adhesives Agriculture Varnishes

If they applied only to the last, a knowledge of them would be indispensable.

A knowledge of colloid chemistry is also essential for chemical analysis, photo-chemistry, electro-chemistry and metallurgy.

We are not surprised at this knowledge being applied to varnishes and adhesives, for these are surely surface phenomena; but in the hands of Svedberg, Perrin and Smoluchowski, colloid systems have aided abstract science to prove the existence of molecules and have furnished data to extend the Kinetic Molecular Theory.

Colloid chemistry is the corner-stone of bio-chemistry, and its study becomes more important for medical students every day. The success of the late Jacques Loeb was due in a large extent to his knowledge of colloids, to whose development he contributed much.5

If the writer has aroused an interest in his subject he will feel repaid, but interest means a desire to know more and along this line advice is needed.

Although Colloid Chemistry was only born in 1860, a special journal was devoted to it in 1890 (Kolloid Zeitschrift), and in this short time a voluminous literature has grown up. To begin with, the wrong book is fatal; the reader becomes quickly discouraged by too technical a work, while a less advanced one may lead him gradually on to the other.

Ignoring the German masters, this list is given. The order should be approximately followed:

Ostwald-Fisher: "Theoretical and Applied Colloid Chemistry." Wiley, N. Y.
Alexander: "Colloid Chemistry." Van Nostrand, N. Y.

Hatschek: "Physics and Chemistry of Colloids." Blakiston, Philadelphia.

Zsigmondy-Spear: "Colloid Chemistry." Wiley, N. Y. Bancroft: "Colloid Chemistry." McGraw-Hill, N. Y.

[&]quot;Protein Behavior." McGraw-Hill, New York.

Freundlich: "Elements of Colloid Chemistry." Dutton & Co., N. Y.

In concluding we may say that, although a tremendous amount of work has been on colloids as applied to industrial arts, from its scientific side much more careful work on well-defined systems remains to be done. Chemists themselves seem to recognize the importance of colloids; the Germans have a society of colloid chemists, and the Americans hold a yearly symposium on the subject and are planning a Colloid Institute.

FRENCH APPRECIATION OF EDGAR ALLAN POE

The saddest and strangest figure in American literary history is that of Edgar Allan Poe. Few writers have lived a life so full of struggle and disappointment, and none have lived and died more completely out of sympathy with their times. His life and his works have been made the subject of minute and prolonged investigation in the United States and in Europe. The widest differences of opinion have existed as to his character and literary achievements. We may safely state that it is only now, a little over seventy-five years after his death, that Poe is coming more or less into his own.

Before giving the opinion of French critics as to Poe's life and writings, a few words must be said about his American critics, especially about the earlier ones, as French critics had

to rely mostly on information coming from America.

The most severe critic of Poe in America was Griswold. According to Griswold, whom Poe chose as his literary executor, Poe was a "naturally unamiable character," arrogant, irascible, envious, without moral susceptibility or sense of gratitude, and exhibiting scarcely any virtue either in his life or his writings. To John M. Daniel, a Richmond editor, who saw Poe frequently during the summer of 1849, he was sour of nature. capricious, selfish, a misanthrope, possessing little moral sense. Many other critics, although not quite so severe, have left us under the impression that Poe was, to say the least, of a very unamiable disposition. On the other hand, N. P. Willis, who was closely associated with him in 1844-45, says Poe was a quiet, patient, industrious and most gentlemanly person, commanding the utmost respect and good feeling by his unvarying deportment and ability, and in subsequent years he saw, so he declares, nothing of the arrogance, vanity and depravity of heart that were commonly attributed to him.

And George A. Graham, editor of the magazine that bore his name, testifies that he knew Poe best between 1840-45, that he had the docility and the kindness of a child and that no man was more quickly touched by kindness, none more prompt to make return for an injury, and further that in all his transactions he was the soul of honor.

Kennedy notes that, although he was irregular, eccentric,

and querulous, "he was incapable of ingratitude for a service done and he always remembered my kindness with gratitude."

As time passed and we have come to know more about Poe's life, it has become more and more evident that the view of his character held by Griswold and those who sided with him was unduly harsh, although Poe was not without regrettable traits and serious weaknesses. Poe was not a confirmed inebriate; the volume and the quality of his writings sufficiently demonstrate this.

His life and character have been more criticized than his work. The clash of opinion with respect to Poe's character is due mainly to the fact that most of the contemporary judgments adverse to him were based on his conduct during his spells of inebriation, at which times he was largely irresponsible. Most of these estimates were also based on the poet's later years, after body and mind had become enfeebled.

FOREIGN CRITICS

Among foreign critics the writings of Poe have appealed, especially to those of France, and it is among the French that his-earliest and most earnest literary admirers were found. It is also among the writers of this nation that the Griswold charges have been most fully accepted. But it must be stated that these charges in no way detracted from the pleasure Poe's work gave them.

However, it is to be regretted that for more than a half century Poe, the man, has been misunderstood and misjudged. This could hardly be otherwise, since, even in America, the high position assigned to Poe is still occasionally questioned.

Even before his death, most of Poe's stories were accepted at their full value. Although the majority of French critics admire Poe, he has been severely criticized.

In France his followers have proved his worst enemies, for their praises rest on certain of his qualities that are least amiable, most abnormal. Neither his life nor his best qualities have been fairly exhibited. Rather they have set forth his abnormalities and they made him a monster.

His chief exponent, Beaudelaire, who translated his work and who set him up as a divinity, has seriously injured the standing of Poe among the greater French writers. But as far as Beaudelaire and his school are concerned, evidence is not required and explanations are unnecessary. Beaudelaire apparently regarded Griswold's criticism of Poe as typically American, and that it was in consonance with our national standards. He follows the beaten track, expatiating on Poe's excellent family and gentle birth.

Beaudelaire dimly realized that Poe was born with an inheritance perhaps not of evil, but one that was fraught with disaster. He sees the word "Luckless" written in mysterious characters in the sinuous fold of his forehead, as he also sees the blind angel of expiation forever hover around him. It is in vain that Poe's life exhibits talents, virtues or graces, the majority of his countrymen have for him but anathema, they are incapable of appreciating genius, being too absorbed in material interests.

Although Beaudelaire did not deny any of Griswold's allegations, he did resent, with Gallic venom, the use Griswold made of his editorial authority. The pedagogue vampire has defamed his friend at full length in an enormous article, wearisome and crammed with hatred, which was prefixed to the post-humous edition of Poe's work. Beaudelaire asks, "Are there no regulations in America to keep curs out of cemeteries?"

Beaudelaire has often been called the French Poe. Little wonder, then, that he should have tried to seek extenuations for Poe's failings and weaknesses as far as his character was concerned.

As for Beaudelaire's opinion of Poe as a writer, it may be summed up with the following quotation from his memoir on Poe:

The characters of Poe, or rather the character of Poe, the man with sharpened faculties, the man with nerves relaxed, the man whose ardent and patient will bids defiance to difficulties, whose glance is steadfastly fixed upon objects that increase the more he gazes, this man is Poe himself, and his women, all luminous and sickly, dying of thousand unknown ills, and speaking with a voice resembling music, are still himself; or, at least by their strange inspirations, by their knowledge, by their incurable melancholy, they participate strongly in the nature of their creator. In Titanide, his ideal woman, perhaps more than anywhere else, glows that insatiable passion for the beautiful which forms his greater claims, that is to say, the essence of all his claims, to the affection and respect of poets.

Beaudelaire made Poe his mental affinity. He considered him as a genius "déclassé," and the more he saw of his works

the more he was determined to place him higher.

Though Beaudelaire could not gain honor for himself he could bestow fame on another poor mortal, a poet of the nineteenth century, that age extolled, not for dreams, but for its material progress.

There was but one form of progress these two cared about, not the progress of science or of electric lights, but the increased

power of seeing visions and dreaming dreams.

Both were misunderstood by a generation of materialists. They were potters who fashioned their clay into exquisite moulds, and artists who cared not at all for usefulness or utility. They understood that a Grecian urn is not impaired by its being put to some vile use, and that the maker of it will not incur the blame, for, the result being achieved, his hours of toil have not been wasted, and the beauty he created must last as long as his creation exists.

As Beaudelaire himself wrote: "Beauty is a quality so strong that it can but elevate the soul."

In the first of his articles on Poe, written in 1853, Barbey d'Aurevilly, one of the well-known novelists and critics of his day, takes up the stories of "The Gold Bug" and "The Unparalleled Adventure of 'One Hans Pfaal.' " What first attracted his attention was their strange and disconcerting originality so peculiar that it suggests an abnormal, perhaps a condition of the brain. "Poe is like one whose talent, singular, abnormal, has its roots in some somber mania. It is like a flower which has acquired strange new colorings and spottings because its roots have been dipped in poison." He condemns the author of "The Gold Bug" for sacrificing his genius for the fantastic to the positivism and the materialism of his American environment.

The mystery surrounding the discovery of the treasure in "The Gold Bug" should have been left unsolved, he says. He contends that in giving a perfectly rational explanation of it "the poet allows himself to be strangled by the American."

In the story of Hans Pfaal and his journey to the moon he sees little but the Yankee with his deep-rooted love of discovery and applied science. In his second article, which deals with twelve of Poe's best tales, he makes further complaints. He reproaches him for his silence on moral questions, for his pessimism, and for his pantheism. In tales like "The Gold Bug" and "The Purloined Letter," he sees merely the "dexterity of a magician," artifice rather than art. He claims that Poe never rises above the world of sensations, that he never mounts to the higher region of the feelings where the real substance of man is to be found. He finds fault with him for taking up with what he calls the chimeras of the century-mesmerism, somnambulism, metempsychosis, etc. He thinks that Poe's tales show effort and determination rather than strength and inspiration and that his originality lacks "just that sincerity that would make of it a thing divine." In his third article he reproaches him for his extravagant devotion to the doctrine of art for art's sake, which leads, he maintains, to the "deliberate contempt for everything that savors of the didactic, to the pursuit of violent emotions at any price and to the almost bestial adoration of form alone."

He expresses his final judgment in these words: "Edgar Poe could have been something great, but he will merely be something curious."

Louis Etienne, who was at one time a professor in the University of Besancon, published in 1857, in the Revue Contemporaine, an appreciation of Poe, which, taken as a whole, was perhaps the most valuable contribution to the Poe literature that France had as yet made. Like d'Aurevilly, he reproaches Poe for his lack of the higher feelings and at the same time for his unceasing exploitation of the horrible. "In these stories." he says, "the heart and soul have no place." "Oh, for a breath of human feeling," he exclaims; "that is what is lacking in these horrors which make you shudder. It is not because they are horrors that they fall under the ban of criticism but because they reach nothing but the nerves. They unquestionably betray rare power, they make your flesh creep, they make your heart throb, they throw you into a fever of excitement, but they do not reach the soul. The horrible may be beautiful, original. admirable, but only on one condition, and that condition is everywhere sovereign; it is that in it the soul shall have its share. The human soul is not in these stories; it is not in Edgar Poe, either, in spite of all his talents."

Like d'Aurevilly again, he finds in the group of tales represented by "The Gold Bug" and "The Purloined Letter" ingenuity rather than art. "Ingenuity carried to his excess," he says, "is literature only for those who confuse amazement with admiration." Poe's philosophy he characterizes as puerile. He considers as especially deserving of condemnation Poe's theory of evil, which is, he says, that "it comes not from man's weakness, but from a primordial element of perversity in his nature."

M. Arnould, whose article on Poe was published in the Revue Moderne in 1868, was a young journalist of democratic tendencies who devoted himself almost exclusively, during his later years, to the writing of fiction. He notes first that the tales of Poe are extremely monotonous, a peculiarity due, he claims, to the fact that they all deal either with physical suffering or with mental anguish. "This," he asserts, "is the bond of unity and the indelible mark of his work." The monotony of his stories is aggravated, according to M. Arnould. by the uniformity of the pictures and the personages. "In the pictures there are no contrasts. If he describes a tempest and darkness, it is the wildest tempest and the thickest darkness. not a moment of calm, not a gleam of light, a flash to make the horror visible and that is all." The personages, dominated by a single idea, all end with crime, a kind of crime, moreover, whose characteristic is that it is "never the result of passion of rage but the necessary consequence of a deformation of the brain, of a depravity of the moral sense." He observes that even Poe's heroines bring no light into darkness: "A young woman enters, you think that a ray of sunlight is about to shoot athwart these heavy clouds and beautify them with a fringe of silver; be undeceived."

When Edgar Poe brings into our presence a beautiful young woman it is because she is in the clutches of some strange disease, of some nervous disorder akin to epilepsy; it is because, reduced to the state of suffering, agonizing phantom, she can no longer inspire us with any feeling except a mixture of repulsion and horror from which even pity is absent.

Like many other critics of Poe, M. Arnould attaches slight value to his tales of logic, such as the "Murders of the Rue Morgue," and his tales of mystification such as the "Balloon Hoax." "You discover in them," he says, "merely the American playing with difficulties, or the mathematician amusing himself solving problems that have purposely been made complicated in order to show off his cleverness to greater advantage."

He declares, too, that Poe has not a creative imagination. Apropos of the story of Hans Pfaal, he writes: "Here the story ends. Do not expect adventures in the moon, or a description of this dead luminary. If Poe were a man of exuberant, or even of inventive imagination, this would be a fine theme. But Poe's imagination stops short at the point where his acquaintance with science ends, and never passes certain well-defined limits. He disfigures, he magnifies, he exaggerates, he conjectures, he does not create."

He affirms, furthermore, that "Poe knows nothing of wide horizons," that he has no general ideas, that he does not comprehend life, viewing it, as he does, from only one side; that he is "unacquainted with absolutely everything that is not himself and his malady." He declares that he is not, properly speaking, a great figure, that "he has not genius," for genius is the supreme equilibrium of the higher faculties.

René Tasselin, a contributor to the Revue Suisse, believes that the exclusive treatment of the exceptional, which, according to him, is the special characteristic mark of Poe's writings, is a sign of inferiority. "Does not art consist," he asks, "in manifesting simple, primitive, natural beauty, so to speak, and is it not degrading it, and in some sort doubting its power, to seek it in clever combinations of the horrible and the grandiose, in subtle penetrating perfumes, in strange discordant tones?

"You obtain in this way extraordinary effects, you may succeed in pleasing the over-refined, the blasé, but assuredly you have left the higher levels of art."

Madame Vincens, well and favorably known as Arvede Barine, agrees with Arnould in thinking that Poe did not have creative imagination. "His imagination was strong," she says; "it was never fertile, and its fecundity dried up as the attacks due to excessive use of alcohol became more violent." She contends also that his outlook on life is very limited, that of all writers that count he is the one "whose domain is the most restricted," and as to his position she thinks that he deserves only a "secondary place in the ranks of creative minds."

The work by Lauvrière, the standard continental life of Poe [Emile Lauvrière, 1901: "Edgar Poe; His Life and His Work. Psychological and pathological study. 1904. (2 v.).] is not only the French authority on all that concerns Poe's abnormal psychology, but many American and English authors quote it as authoritative scientific statements. Whether these statements should be so accepted must be determined by an investigation of the qualifications of Lauvrière, to make this important pronouncement and of the soundness and fairness of his judgment.

Lauvrière's book extends over 700 pages. The first 300 detail Poe's life; the remaining 400 contain a discussion of his

writings.

In this critical study, Lauvrière has formulated theories by which he attempts to solve certain problems of Poe's life and to explain the peculiarities which he believes to be characteristic of much that Poe wrote. Accepting as true all that Griswold alleged, Lauvrière has attempted to establish a thesis that demonstrates an inter-relation between the abnormalities described and the things that he asserts Poe wrote during the time his brain was poisoned by stimulants, or narcotized by drugs.

His conclusions that Poe became a "madman" because of a primarily disordered brain, diseased but stimulated by alcohol, or hallucinated by opium, require investigation. It is to be regretted that Lauvrière has adopted as his authority the memoir of Griswold and that he has ignored Ingram and Gill's contributions. This oversight may be explained because the works of these two writers do not fit into his theory. Apparently, to Lauvrière's mind, opium, alcohol, madness and Poe were so mixed that we fail to recognize the Poe we know.

Admitting that he was sincere in his beliefs, although his conclusions are based partly on untruthful allegations, we are justified in finding out what scientific truths he based his conclusions. Lauvrière himself fully details the preparations he made for the study of Poe.

Considering Poe as a psychological phenomenon, it occurred to him that medicine would furnish the key to the startling enigma that conjoined Poe's life and his work.

"As our first inducement," says Lauvrière, "to begin this study, a thing we little foresaw when we entered upon this

work, was the intermittent alcoholic attacks that were so prominent a symptom in the disease of the poor poet. All the symptoms of degeneration were so deeply graven in the flesh and soul of Poe, they show as plainly in his poor haggard face. the face of an inspired vagabond, as they do in the pages of his immortal prose and verse. Mentally, as well as physically, this degeneration has left its indelible mark upon his whole being. This explains all his abnormalities, his strength and his weakness, his genius and his madness, his defeats and his victories; without them his life and his work are void of understanding, with them there is no more mystery: everything is made clear, logical and harmonious. Although this extremely simple explanation of the complicated problem was made not without difficulty, these final conclusions were not arrived at without painstaking study and extreme labor. It proved to be a new world of exploration-alienism, that distant and terrifying province of scientific psychology. Happily, the means for exploration were at hand, and they served well for one interested but untrained in scientific research. We consulted frequently with such specialists as Ribot and Janet of the College of France. While Lauvrière deserves credit for the effort that be made, and for his good intentions, the result hardly justified his preparatory course of study.

Lauvrière as a "Docteur dès Lettres," and not a doctor of medicine, might have remembered Poe's two lines often quoted:

"A little learning is a dangerous thing. Drink deep, or, taste not the Pierian spring."

Lauvrière, in attempting to discuss a subject by its very nature difficult and not fully comprehended by our most advanced students, undertook something for which he was inadequately prepared.

He bases not only the conception, but even the ideation, of much that Poe wrote upon his abnormal psychology while under the influence of drugs and stimulants. This generalization of Lauvrière is disproved in many of Poe's stories.

Moreover, investigations into the effect of even small quantities of alcohol in retarding brain operations must have been well within his knowledge. Poe's works are the best evidence that his brain was not dulled by alcoholic poisoning. It was not altogether because of Lauvrière's dependence on Griswold

for the facts of Poe's life that he has drawn the conclusion he did, but it is principally because he had been blinded by scientific aphorisms, basically true but misapplied. Lauvrière is also a believer in the insanity of genius, as the following quotation will show:

The important question of the relationship of genius to insanity comes so definitely in the case of Poe that Poe himself has asked it. For this reason we cannot avoid it. Let us treat it frankly, not with the expectation of an impossible solution but with the hope of casting on it the light of our own investigations and that of many others. The whole monstrous work trembles beneath a wind of madness and is only held together by some harmonious law of logic and by the secret virtue of marvelous artifice. But so great is his art, which triumphs over madness, that from the coldest of judges comes the verdict.

No; this extraordinary man, who in a few words has given to humanity some of its rarest thrills and supremest emotions, was indeed mad; or, if the word genius really means originality, there was in his madness an inseparable as well as an unde-

niable mixture of genius.

A fair investigation of the parts of Poe's life does not justify Lauvrière in passing this verdict.

Irrespective of its scientific or critical value, this work of Lauvrière possesses merit as literature. It has been crowned by the French Academy, but the opinion of French alienists has been far from unanimous concerning his conclusions.

The last of French critics of Poe was Camille Mauclaire. In a book published in 1925 and entitled "The Genius of Edgar Poe" he reviews most of the important memoirs written on Poe, he separates the truth from the legend, exposes the method and thoughts of the writer, and in a last chapter he shows the influence Poe has had on French writers. Although acknowledging Poe's weakness and errors, he thinks that they have been often exaggerated and therefore have impaired, in some degree, his reputation as a writer. On the other hand, Mauclaire claims that Poe's case has never been scientifically diagnosed by a competent neurologist, who possessed combined pathological and literary equipment and freedom from prejudice necessary to render his case intelligible to the reading world.

Beaudelaire, he claims, basing his criticisms on Griswold's memoir, and Lauvrière having undertaken a pathological study of Poe without sufficient preparation, have failed.

From the preceding remarks it is evident that some of the criticisms just examined were impaired by prejudice, while others have extravagantly eulogized Poe. Perhaps too much emphasis hitherto placed upon French praise of Poe has established amongst us an erroneous idea as to what the French estimate of him really is. For that reason I have concisely presented both sides of the question by mentioning, in this brief lecture, French critics both favorable and unfavorable to Poe.

JOSEPH SCHNEIDER

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

HOLY FATHER PRAISES WORK AT SISTERS COLLEGE

On July 15, the Very Rev. Patrick J. McCormick, Ph.D., Dean of Sisters College, Catholic University, was received in audience by the Holy Father. The Pope showed great interest in the University in general, but was particularly eager to hear of Sisters College. He recalled that a similar institution has been created at the Catholic University of Milan and is giving excellent results.

His Holiness blessed the work and all who are associated with it. He expressed the wish that it may be better and more widely understood and appreciated that it is absolutely necessary to care for the technical and scientific training of Sisters devoted to the education of Catholic youth.

"CINCINNATI PLAN" TO AID HIGH SCHOOLS

Following the recent announcement of the reorganization of the Catholic School system in the Archdiocese of Cincinnati, plans for the financial support of existing schools and of new schools which will be opened are outlined in a letter sent by Archbishop John T. McNicholas to the Catholic pastors.

High school pupils from the various parishes will be assigned to the diocesan high schools according to their geographical location. Children attending the high schools will have their tuition paid by their home parishes, provided that they are attending the high school to which their respective parishes are tributary. If they attend a Catholic high school other than the one assigned to their parish, the tuition must be paid by the families of the students.

Each of the central Catholic high schools will be under the diocesan supervision of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, having uniformity of texts and standards, so that children moving from one parish, or one section, to another will not be retarded by a change of methods, texts and organization. The pastors of the respective churches have been notified of the schools to which their parishes have been made tributary.

Support of the school program will be secured through monthly collections to be taken up in all the parishes, or by other means

having the approval of the Archbishop. The funds in each parish will be kept for the exclusive benefit of children from that parish.

Establishment of scholarships is also urged by the Archbishop, who declares in his letter to the pastors that every Catholic having an income from any source whatever is under serious obligation to contribute as much as his means will permit.

Owing to the fact that many of the teachers are religious, whose salaries are small, the sum required for establishing a scholarship is only \$2,000, the Archbishop states. Separate endowment funds will be maintained for scholarships from various parishes, the fund to be held in trust either by the respective pastor or by the Archbishop himself.

The policy followed by the late Archbishop Henry Moeller in providing for the free education of pupils in the Catholic high schools will be maintained as far as possible, Archbishop Mc-Nicholas states. Parishes will not be taxed on a per capita basis, regardless of the number of pupils attending the high schools, but each parish will be taxed according to its ability to maintain the diocesan system of free high schools. The sum of \$100 will be paid by the Archdiocese to those conducting the high schools for every pupil in attendance.

It has also been announced that St. Rita's school for the deaf has been recognized as an accredited high school.

Commercial high schools in Cincinnati conducted by parishes which have now been made tributary to a definite central high school may graduate the students at present enrolled, but no new classes are to be started.

In a final appeal for cooperation of pastors and people in the school plan, the Archbishop urges the pastors to provide for the tuition of pupils of high school age, pending the opening of the proposed new schools. It is the Archbishop's desire, he states, to bring as many Catholic children as possible within reach of the religious schools, thereby insuring for them "knowledge for the mind, morality for the soul, and true Christian discipline for the composite being that we call man or woman."

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER PRAISES PARISH INSTITUTION

In a report submitted to the principal of the Stuyvesant High School, New York, by one of its teachers, after a survey of St. Brendan's (parochial) High School, Brooklyn, high commendation is paid to the deportment of its pupils, the curriculum, and the methods by which the Catholic institution is conducted.

Courtesy, discipline, proficiency in oral English, and religious training are the four general features of the school administration stressed most in the report. Touching on the religious instruc-

tion given in St. Brendan's, the teacher says:

"All pupils are required to take one hour of religious instruction. It is a required subject, the theory of the director and the faculty being that education can be lastingly sound only when allied with thorough religious training. Education in this subject is not limited to classroom theory. All pupils are required to comply regularly with the practical performance of their religious duties. Ethical appreciation and character building through religion are the basic premises of education in this high school."

Other features that elicited praise from the visitor, who was personally conducted through the school by the Rt. Rev. Msgr. T. A. Hickey, were the "immaculate cleanliness," the silence of pupils when passing through corridors, the spaciousness of the class-rooms, the correct posture of pupils at recitation, ample blackboard facilities, super-effective acoustics in every room, class assignments, "grammatical, and faultless" English, methods of conducting debates, and the self-effacement of the teacher, the burdens of activity being placed almost entirely on the class.

ADAPTING MONTESSORI PLAN TO IRISH TONGUE

Madame Montessori, foundress of the educational system called after her name, has announced that she will adapt her system to the teaching of the Irish language. She already has taken up the work of adaptation.

Madame Montessori recently paid a visit of several days to the Ursuline Convent school at Waterford, received many distinguished visitors and demonstrated her educational system, which is widely followed in Ireland. Miss Vettell, who now uses the system in Waterford, first introduced it in Ireland. Both the Ursuline and Mercy Orders of nuns use the system in Waterford.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

The Dogma of Evolution, by Louis T. More, Princeton University Press.

"In earlier times which we so complacently call the Dark Ages, those who wished to obtain an insight into spiritual mysteries or to learn the fortunate or unfortunate outcome of their enterprise were wont to consult astrologers. It was foolishly believed that our spiritual and temporal affairs were determined by the positions and motions of the planets in their orbits. Is it not true that men, today, are seeking the source and law of our spiritual being in the configurations and motions of atoms which compose our corporeal substance? Is there any real difference between the attempts of ancient astrologers and modern biologists? Only time will tell."

In this question which opens the letter of dedication of his work, Professor More indicates his attitude toward the subject. The title suggests the scientist's vigorous protest against the whole spirit which pervades so much of the discussion favorable to the hypothesis of evolution. Professor More, himself a pure scientist of high standing and not an opponent of the theory he discusses, finds upon close examination that all the prejudices and lack of regard for evidence are not in the camp of the Bryanites.

In summarizing what he considers a totally inadequate foundation which paleontology offers for a scientific theory of evolution and the causes of variation, he quotes the Collected Essays of Huxley as an example of just such propaganda as the scientists are wont to attribute to the fundamentalists. Before the Royal Geological Society, Huxley sustains the thesis that "the positive evidence of paleontology points to persistence of species." To groups of working men in popular lectures, he asserts that the same science "not only verifies evolution but it can discriminate between different methods of variation." Efforts to "put over" an hypothesis are not at all unknown to scientists.

In the preliminary summing up of the Greek and Mediaeval attitude towards science the author is, on the whole, more than usually fair to the latter outlook. By way of supplement of the statement of the Galileo case, it may be well to remember that this tempestuous scientist was not forbidden to teach his views as an hypothesis, and they were not more than that at the time. The inquisition expressly condemned the assertion that Copernicanism was then known as true and that the Scriptures appear thereby to be contradicted.

At a very considerable length Professor More deals with the most interesting question of life as a mechanism, and sufficiently. we believe, to enable him to arrive at the conclusion that there is no scientific proof for this doctrine in the best meaning of that term. Evolution in its societal and religious aspects rounds out the discussion. The superman as a survival of the fittest is not so popular today, when the late unpleasantness of 1914-1918 is viewed in retrospect. There has been a struggle for existence but certainly no unerring survival of the fittest. "When the laws of biological evolution have been tempered with mercy and pity for the unfortunate and weak, what has the hard humanitarianism, which is the logical conclusion from the thesis of the struggle for existence, done for the world?" asks the author. Nor. does absolute evolution driven to its logical conclusion leave religion in any better position. But the followers of religion are not apt to surrender their spiritual birth-right for the mess of pottage of an unproved hypothesis. "Unless it can be indisputably proved that man, with his infinite variety of thoughts and emotions, is but an aggregation of mechanical atoms held together and moved by physical forces-an hypothesis for which we have not the slightest proof-there seems to be no necessity to deny the existence of a spiritual world, not subject to the laws of mechanical energy or circumscribed by the space limitations of material or electrical substances."

It is well for the scientist to make these public examinations of conscience. Here, as in the life of the spirit, they have the same clarifying even if humiliating effect. Distorted perspectives are corrected. The reviewer highly recommends this psychoanalysis of present-day science, of a very different type to Chesterton's *Everlasting Man*. We understand it has annoyed quite a number of the so-called pure scientists, but as yet we are not deluged with rejoinders to Dr. More's dispassionate arraignment.

CHARLES A. HART.

Pageant of America. Vol. VIII, Builders of the Republic, by Frederick Austin Ogg (pp. 352); and Vol. XII, The American Spirit in Art, by Frank Jewett Mather, Jr., Charles Rufus Morey, and William James Henderson (pp. 354). New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press.

Schools with five volumes of the Pageant of America which appeared several months ago will welcome these two volumes. which maintain the same standard of historical, literary, and pictorial excellence. Unfortunately too few high schools, public or private, can afford this elaborate work, essential as it is in making American history in the preparatory schools a living The editor-in-chief, Dr. Ralph Gabriel, contributes superb introductory essays to both volumes, though one may hesitate to accept as more than doubtful the assumption: "Perhaps, had it not been for the Seven Years War (1756-1763), the Americans and the English would have gone on living together in the same empire, 'muddling through' the difficulties bound to arise from time to time until the British colonies in North America had achieved a measure of autonomy comparable to that of the self-governing units in the British Commonwealth of Nations." However, this is a minor matter of speculative interpretation which does not mar his delightful sketches so difficult to write in a tone broad and sweeping and yet acceptably accu-The individual editors have bound rate as generalizations. their cuts, contemporary broadsides, photographs of new items and bills, caricatures, reproductions of paintings, and photographs into a logical interpretation of the field by clever explanatory paragraphs, with which little but minor faults might be found by the most diligent and conscientious critic. It is new history told in a new way. There is not a dull page nor a poorly selected picture. There are some photographs which one might expect, but in such a work the editor must eliminate often at the cost of his own wishes.

Professor Ogg's volume traces American factions and party struggles by way of pictures and prints from colonial days to the Civil War, grouping illustrations and accompanying paragraphs (about three to the page) under the following heads: Politics of the Colonies, The Eve of the Revolution, Independence, Benjamin Franklin, Framing the Constitution, George Washington, The Federalist Régime, The Virginian Dynasty, Jacksonian

Democracy, The Roaring Forties, and A House Divided against Itself. Notes on the pictures, cuts, cartoons, and photographs, along with a good index, complete the volume.

In an introduction to The American Spirit in Art, Dr. Gabriel explains why America has only recently come to display its artistic spirit in paintings, mural decorations, and cathedral building, incidentally observing that, "In the Spanish colony of Mexico a white aristocracy, influenced somewhat by contact with the artistic Indian, called into being not only churches and cathedrals more magnificent than anything in the English colonies but some painters and artistic craftsmen of real ability." The Latin assuredly turned to art even as the Britisher did to material things. The first sixteen chapters trace the growth of American portrait painting, pastels, historical paintings, genre painting, and landscapes from the rude beginnings through the various schools to the present. It is an interesting study of men, scores upon scores of them, and of their reproduced works. Well known and inferior artists all appear with their renderings appraised. especially in their contribution to the rise of American art. Unappreciated, too often these artistic souls remained in European exile or sought more remunerative callings. S. F. B. Morse, for instance, turned his brains and hands toward telegraphy with no loss to the world. After the Civil War the artists' lot improved as millionaires became collectors and bountiful if untutored patrons, as art galleries were endowed, as mural paintings were desired for public buildings, and as great churches were erected. But America is still far from an artist's paradise. Two superb chapters illustrate American sculpture, which, after all, is largely Italian and French with the Dublin-born St. Gaudens as the greatest figure. Reproductive engraving, painter engraving, illustration, social and political caricature, and musical art are all sketched in the later chapters. Closing the book, one realizes that this series marks a high point in American book-makinga credit to editors, writers, artists, and the Yale Press.

RICHARD J. PURCELL, PH.D.

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